Masters Theses & Specialist Projects   Graduate School

5-1991

Burnout Among Head Start Social Services Coordinators in Region IV

Robert Mason
Western Kentucky University

Mason,

Robert G.

1991

BURNOUT AMONG HEAD START SOCIAL SERVICES

COORDINATORS IN REGION IV

A Project

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership

Western Kentucky University

Bowling Green, Kentucky

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Education Specialist

by

Robert G. Mason

May, 1991

AUTHORIZATION FOR USE OF THESIS

Permission is hereby

☒ granted to the Western Kentucky University Library to make, or allow to be made photocopies, microfilm or other copies of this thesis for appropriate research for scholarly purposes.

☐ reserved to the author for the making of any copies of this thesis except for brief sections for research or scholarly purposes.

Signed: _R̶T̶R̶f̶o̶s̶o̶_____

Date: __1/22/91_____

Please place an "X" in the appropriate box.

This form will be filed with the original of the thesis and will control future use of the thesis.

BURNOUT AMONG HEAD START

SOCIAL SERVICES COORDINATORS IN REGION IV

Recommended _Jan. 14, 1991_
(Date)

Emmett D. Burker
(Director of Project)

Fred E. Stickle

Wm. A. Floyd

Approved _January 22, 1991_
(Date)

Elmer Gray
(Dean of Graduate College)

i

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Table of Contents

List of Tables

BURNOUT AMONG HEAD START SOCIAL SERVICES COORDINATORS

IN REGION IV

Robert G. Mason   May, 1991   61 pages

Directed by: E. Burkeen, F. Stickle, and W. Floyd

Department of Educational   Western Kentucky University

Leadership

The project was designed to study the nature of the burnout
phenomenon among Head Start Social Services Coordinators in
eight southeastern states. The association of age, sex,
marital status, years employed, program size, caseload,
race, education and perceived level of stress to the three
subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) were
correlated on a population of 59 coordinators representing
25% of the total population. Years employed was shown to be
negatively correlated to the Emotional Exhaustion subscale.
Perceived stress levels due to workload were most strongly
associated with emotional exhaustion. Relationship to the
other factors studied was not significant. The findings
provide support for the contention that burnout does exist
among members of this population and that steps need to be
taken at the individual and agency levels to combat the
stressful conditions related to burnout. While emotional
exhaustion and lack of personal accomplishment were shown to
exist, the subjects showed little to no evidence of
depersonalization in working with their clients.

INTRODUCTION

This project was designed to study the phenomenon of burnout among Head Start Social Services Coordinators in the southeastern section of the United States. These coordinators are exposed daily to the "war on poverty" at the community level. In an era of increasingly complex and intensified social ills, Head Start Social Services Coordinators must deal with the frustrations of assisting families who often need services of an extensive nature. The cumulative stresses can lead to what has been called "burnout."

Statement of the Problem

Burnout, a term first used by Freudenberger in 1974 (Farber, 1983), is a phenomenon that has been documented and studied by a number of theorists from widely divergent backgrounds (Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach, 1982; Harrison, 1980; Edelwich, 1980). Maslach (1982) believes that burnout is a problem unique to those professionals who work closely with people and their human problems. Individuals are impacted physically and emotionally. Also, organizations are deprived of creative performers and clients are denied the services required to assist them. As Pines and her co-authors have said:

Burnout is a very costly phenomenon. It is costly for

1

those who quit their jobs in terms of their wasted training, and it is costly for those who stay in terms of the psychological price they pay. It is costly for the organizations in terms of lost talent and poor performance, and it is costly for the clients and patients (Pines et al, 1981, p. 17).

At a time of increased concern for accountability in government spending, Head Start agencies cannot afford to lose the experience and creativity of workers because of burnout. While there is much that an individual can do to combat burnout (Edelwich, 1980; Cherniss, 1980), it may be that it is the agency that must take the lead in preventing the problem from occuring (Golembiewski, 1986).

The aim of this project was to make an initial examination of burnout among the population of Region IV Social Services Coordinators. The research was intended to establish the existence of burnout, the intensity of the problem, possible correlates, and interventions that might be useful to the subjects and their agencies.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Defining Burnout

Farber (1983) quotes Freudenberger (1974) as using the term burnout "to denote a state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work" (Farber, 1983, p. 1). Freudenberger (1974) utilizes a dictionary definition and defines burnout as "to fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p. 159). This exhaustion, according to Freudenberger, will often result in the physical signs of fatigue, frequent headaches, gastrointestinal and sleep disturbances, and shortness of breath. Behavioral indicators might be a readiness to display anger, instantaneous irritation and frustration, crying, suspiciousness, paranoia, poor judgement in risk taking, and abuse of drugs.

Freudenberger goes on to describe the person's thinking while in burnout as being "excessively rigid, stubborn, and inflexible" (1974, p. 161). The person has a "totally negative attitude" and this attitude tends to get verbalized. "The person looks, acts, and seems depressed. He seems to keep to himself more" (p. 161).

Farber (1983) makes the statement that "burnout can be conceptualized as a function of the stresses engendered by

3

individual, work-related, and societal factors" (p. 3).
Farber's "burnout" has symptoms which include three
components which are: attitudinal; emotional; and, physical.

Agreeing that burnout is "a wearing out, exhaustion, or
failure resulting from excessive demands made on energy,
strength, or resources" Daley (1979, p. 375) contends that
burnout must be more precisely defined for specific work
situations. Using this line of thought Daley defines
burnout "as a reaction to job-related stress that varies in
nature with the intensity and duration of the stress itself"
(1975, p. 375). Daley sees burnout as a "dynamic process"
with several stages of development.

Cherniss' (1980) research into the causes of burnout
among new human services workers has led him to define the
term burnout as "a change in attitude and behavior in
response to a demanding, frustrating, unrewarding work
experience" (p. 6). Burnout, for Cherniss, has also come to
mean negative changes in work-related attitudes and
behaviors in response to job stressors.

According to Cherniss (1980) these negative changes can
be summarized as follows: loss of concern for the client;
pessimism; decline in motivation; apathy; negativism;
irritability; preoccupation with one's own comfort on the
job; rationalization of failure; and, resistance to change.
Burnout so defined is different from behaviors which might
be exhibited by a worker which result from temporary
fatigue, socialization, or turnover.

In his work both as a helping professional and researcher in the burnout phenomenon, Edelwich (1980) believes that burnout is "a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions as a result of the conditions of their work" (p. 14). The consequences of burnout are: idealistic expectations of the helpers are frustrated; services to clients are compromised; and, society along with the social service institution incurs high costs.

Lawson, Ellis & Rivens (1984) saw burnout through the eyes of co-workers and clients. The helping professional who is burned out will react in ways that are destructive to interagency communication, behave in ways that affect the morale of the people around them, and work with clients in counter-theraputic styles.

Pines, Aronson & Kafry (1981) make a distinction between tedium and burnout. Tedium is defined as a result of prolonged and chronic pressures whether mental, physical, or emotional. Burnout is considered to be "the result of constant or repeated emotional pressure associated with an intense involvement with people over long periods of time" (p. 15). While the authors argue that tedium and burnout are different, they do state that tedium is "part and parcel" of the burnout syndrome.

The authors claim that there are three components of tedium and burnout. They are: physical exhaustion - characterized by low energy, chronic fatigue and weariness;

emotional exhaustion - with feelings of depression and helplessness; and, mental exhaustion - with accompanying negative attitudes toward self, work, life, and lowered self-esteem.

Maslach (1982), the developer of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), has provided this definition of burnout: "It is a response to the chronic emotional strain of dealing extensively with other human beings, particularly when they are troubled or having problems" (p. 3). She goes on to say that at the heart of burnout is a pattern of emotional overload and subsequent emotional exhaustion. In addition to emotional exhaustion, Maslach theorizes that the burnout syndrome has two other major aspects; depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

Believing that there is a similarity between "professional burnout" and industrial alienation, Karger (1981) claims that "in Marxian terms, burnout is the objectification of the social worker's means of production; his skills of human interaction become a market commodity" (p. 275). Burnout in this system of thought is worker alienation. The author does not consider burnout to be a theory of human behavior but "more of a description of symptoms" related to the "anomic conditions found among industrial workers" (Karger, 1981, p. 281).

Several authors note that burnout is not a sudden effect but a gradual process (Pines et al., 1981; Edelwich, 1980; Daley, 1979). Pines et al. (1981) discuss the

movement of the helping professional from tedium to burnout.
Edelwich (1980) outlines what he refers to as "Stages of
Disillusionment" ranging from enthusiasm to stagnation to
frustration and ending in apathy. This phenomenon,
according to Edelwich, represents a pattern which is
cyclical for the individual and highly contagious within the
organization.

Daley (1979) utilizes a model developed by Costello and
Zalkind representing behavior under stressful situations.
The initial stage in this model is called the alarm state.
In this state, the defense mechanisms are activated.
Internal conflict may lead to frustration. The second stage
is termed the resistance state. The individual is
constantly attempting to manage stress at this stage. The
resistance state ultimately gives way to exhaustion which
represents the individual's inability to adapt to the
situation. The stress is finally so great that the worker
must often leave the workplace.

Handy (1988) claims that the most influential
definition of the burnout phenomenon has been provided by
Pines and Maslach. She quotes their definition as "a
syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion involving the
development of negative self-concept, negative job attitudes
and loss of concern and feelings for clients" (p. 353).

Causes of Burnout

In their summary of 48 articles on burnout written
between 1974 and 1981, Perlman and Hartman (1982) found that

the antecedents of burnout were divided into three basic groups. Articles which emphasized only one cause cited "organization" (n=14) or "individual" (n=3), while 29 sources described both the individual and the organization as foci of solutions to the problem of burnout.

Freudenberger in numerous articles (1974, 1977a, 1977b) became the leading exponent of the "individual" as the source and cause of burnout. "People who are in the throes of burning out often fail to see their situation as stemming from inside themselves" (Freudenberger, 1977a, p. 26). The worker prone to burnout is in Freudenbergers' view the worker who is most dedicated and committed (1974). They "work too much, too long and too intensely" (1974, p. 161). Boredom is another condition that can lead to burnout, especially when jobs become routinized.

Daley (1979) argues that it is the individual caseworker's basic personality that causes or leads to burnout. In other words, individuals enter social service professions because they find it rewarding to work directly with people in a helping role. The "reality" of social service work, however, leads to frustration on the part of the worker. Frustration results because of paperwork, large caseloads, and lack of criteria for measuring success (Daley, 1979).

Cherniss and Krantz (Farber, 1983) argue in terms of the "disease of over-commitment." This approach says that people who burn out are excessively involved in their

careers and should distance themselves to some degree from their work. "The burnout process thus begins not with stress but with the loss of commitment and moral purpose in work" (Farber, 1983, p. 199).

The majority of researchers and writers place the cause of burnout in the individual/organization transaction category. Edelwich (1980) claims that there are "built-in" sources of frustration in the helping professions. Noble aspirations and high initial enthusiasm of the worker; low pay; and, inadequate funding are a few of the sources listed. Levi (1981) states that problems at work which lead to stress and eventually to burnout are caused by a bad person-environment fit. Discrepancies exist between individual ability and occupational demands, individual needs and occupational opportunities, and/or individual expectations and occupational outcome as perceived by the individual.

Maslach (1982) lists four components of the helping relationship which lead to worker burnout. They are: Focus on Problems - By only focusing on the "negative," workers can be dragged down psychologically; Lack of Positive Feedback - The worker is taken for granted both by the client and the organization; High Level of Emotional Stress; and, Possibility of Improvement. Some clients do not "get better" or improve very slowly. In addition, the job setting itself will contribute because of work overload, lack of control over services, co-workers who themselves may

be burned out, supervisors who are under pressure to "quantify," and the plans, policies and procedures of the organization.

Pines (et al., 1981) lists three common antecedents of burnout: emotionally taxing work; personal characteristics that make workers choose human services as a career; and, "client-centered" orientation. This client-centered orientation creates a relationship that is "asymmetrical." The human services provider is always giving but never receiving emotional support.

Cherniss (1980) lists five sources of strain for new human service workers. These sources include: feeling a lack of competence; lack of client motivation; bureaucratic interference; boredom; and, perceived lack of support among colleagues. Cherniss also introduces the "myth of professional competence." This "myth" refers to a popular misconception among professionals that "credentials" imply "competence." Many, just degreed or certified workers, may expect too much from themselves too early in their careers. In addition, Cherniss suggests that understimulation at work may be as stressful as overstimulation for the new employee.

Ursprung (1986), in his review of burnout literature, notes that several articles state that role strain can be associated with burnout among human services workers. Harrison (1980), noting the work of Kahn and others, divides role dynamics into role conflict and role ambiguity. Role conflict occurs when "incompatible or tenuously compatible

demands or expectations are placed upon the social worker" (Harrison, 1980, p. 32). Role ambiguity is "a lack of clarity" as to expectations on the job (p. 32).

Levi (1981) argues that work tasks should be seen by the employee as part of a "meaningful whole." Each worker should be able to see how their contribution affects the outcome of the process. Farber (1983) believes that burnout can in part be attributed to "inconsequentiality." This refers to a feeling by the helping professional that "no matter how hard they work, the payoffs in terms of accomplishments, recognition, advancement, or appreciation are not there" (Farber, 1983, p. 96). Farber also sees role ambiguity and role conflict as contributing to burnout. He also adds role overload to the list. Role overload occurs when there is too much to do and too little time to do it.

Kestnbaum (1984) offers a possible explanation for some burnout in the interaction that exists between client growth and therapeutic expectations of the human services provider. The difficulty of defining "progress" and obtaining client feedback may contribute to worker burnout.

Several writers (Davis-Sack, Jayaratne & Chess, 1985; Sherman & Wenocur, 1983; House, 1981) stress the lack of social support as a leading cause of stress and burnout. Pines (Farber, 1983) lists six distinct functions of social support including emotional and technical support; emotional and technical challenge; listening; and sharing of social reality. A study by Pines indicated that listening and

emotional support were the social supports most highly rated by workers. Shinn and Morch (Farber, 1983) claim that "primary among group coping strategies is social support" (p. 228). This included support from the family.

Koeske and Koeske (1989) in the conclusion of their two part study found that the most critical condition correlated with burnout among human services providers working under demanding work loads was social support. Low co-worker support was particularly correlated to burnout.

The third area of research into the determinants of burnout focuses primarily on the organization. Arches (1989) in her research into the correlation of burnout and job satisfaction with bureaucratization found that "the more bureaucratized a worker perceives his/her work, the more likely it is that that same worker will experience the symptoms of burnout" (Arches, 1989, p. 188). Wasserman (1971) notes that the bureaucratic structure in which human services providers work places the worker in a position of powerlessness. Clients are treated in an uninspired and routine manner due to heavy workloads, administrative controls, and the growing frustration and cynicism of the helping professional. Streepy (1981) found that "respondents who experienced greater degrees of work pressure were more likely to be burned out." She defined work pressure "in terms of agency pressure to increase the quality or quantity of work" (p. 360).

Karger (1981) sees burnout as a form of worker

alienation. This alienation is a result of the "concept of financial accountability with its logical adjunct of bureaucratic rationality" which is prevalent in large human service organizations (p. 277). This "coupled with a hierarchical and corporate form of organization, has created a social welfare institution that is primarily industrial in nature" (Karger, 1881, p. 277).

This "industrialization" has destroyed the "craft" or art of the social services provider (Fabricant, 1985). These "craft elements" that are so important to the provision of services to needy clients "are being shattered by the increasingly rigid and mechanistic practices of large public-sector service agencies" (Fabricant, 1985, p. 393). In this bureaucratic and industrialized environment, the client "is objectified as a problem that must be processed as the line grows longer" (Karger, 1981, p. 280). The genesis of burnout may well lie, according to these theorists, in the contradictions inherent in the demands placed upon the human services provider in these bureaucratic settings (Karger, 1981).

Perlman and Hartman (1982) found through their research of the literature that the variables found to be significantly related to burnout could be grouped under four basic headings. These headings are: organization characteristics; perceptions of the organization; perceptions of role; and, individual characteristics. A total of 24 separate variables were found in the literature.

Coping with Burnout

Beck (1987) found in her study that coping techniques most preferred by counselors were those strategies that they could initiate on their own without the assistance of colleagues, supervisors or administrators. Reported strategies included: diagnosing sources of stress; cognitive reframing; modification of coping strategies; reducing reality demands and constraints; supporting a positive self-image; and, moderating the physiological stress response. Cournoyer (1988) also lists several coping skills which can be used by the individual to reduce and/or eliminate work stress. He includes positive self-talk, positive imagery, proper breathing, muscle relaxation, exercises, nutrition, and hobbies.

Coping has been defined as "behavior that protects people from being psychologically harmed by problematic social experience" (Donovan, 1987, p. 262). Many of the methods for coping can be grouped into broad categories. In her review of burnout in the helping professions, Ratliff (1988) divided prevention strategies into four major areas. These are: life enrichment; cognitive approaches; self-awareness and life philosophy; and, agency interventions. Many of the methods that follow could be included in these areas.

Farber (1983) suggests individual and group therapy, reality therapy, and stress reduction techniques for the individual. Edelwich (1980) also recommends "reality

therapy" for the human services professional. Cherniss
(1980) in his discussion of stress among new social service
workers suggests that they modify their attitude toward
work. He suggests that new workers change certain work
goals, reduce their level of idealism and decrease the
psychological involvement in work.

Several authors (Maslach, 1982; Cherniss, 1980; Pines
et al., 1981) argue for more emotional detachment from
clients. This detachment or "detached concern" will
necessitate a difficult balancing act between excessive
detachment and over involvement with the clients.
Withdrawal can take the form of physical, emotional and
mental withdrawal (Pines et al., 1981). Lawson et al.
(1984) also suggests that counselors need to accept more
modest goals, a reduced level of personal involvement,
become less idealistic, and increase their concern for
enhancing their own life.

The importance of social support is noted by several
authors (Jayaratne, Himle & Chess, 1988; Koeske and Koeske,
1989; Pines et al., 1981; Sherman and Wenocur, 1983) as
being a critical consideration in helping human services
workers to cope. Jayaratne et al. (1988) quote Wethington
and Kessler as arguing that "perceptions of support
availability are more important than actual support
transactions" (p. 199). Koeske and Koeske (1989) found in
their study that the most critical condition related to
worker burnout and demanding work loads was low coworker

support.

McNeely (1988) in an article outlining innovative morale-enhancers discusses the concept of "Quality Circles" (p. 207). Quality Circles are voluntary problem-solving groups that create a formal mechanism by which employees provide input, receive praise and are afforded opportunities to solve problems" (McNeely, 1988, p. 207). Farber (1983) writes that prevention and treatment for burnout can be helped by discussing problems with colleagues, friends, and family. Scully (Farber, 1983) argues that support networks are the "organizations attempt to offset the occupational stress present in the human services environment" (p. 191).

Cherniss and Krantz, also in Farber (1983), discuss the need for an ideological community that will buffer staff members from "assaults on their ideology." Ideological communities are necessary because "burnout is not a problem of individual coping or adaptation. It is a cultural and historical phenomenon. Burnout results from the loss of moral purpose and commitment in work" (p. 211). The remedy for such distress cannot be found on the individual level. Overcoming the loss of "moral purpose" must entail the support of an ideological community.

Organizations need to be concerned about burnout and job satisfaction. Dissatisfied employees provide less adequate quality of care to clients, and high turnover rates mean higher administrative costs for the agency in terms of recruitment and training. There is also a strong association

between job satisfaction and illness (Sundet, 1987). What can the organization do to help reduce stress and increase the worker's ability to cope successfully?

Cooper, Davidson, Antonosky (Kalimo, El-Batani & Cooper, 1987) and Cherniss (1980) believe that one response is to reduce the workload. Work overload can be seen in either quantitative, too much to do, or qualitative, too difficult, terms (Cooper and Davidson in Kalimo et al., 1987). Cherniss (1980) states that the heavier the workload the greater the chance of burnout. It is not the number of hours worked but the number of client contact hours that seem to affect the burnout of the worker.

Development of adequate employee training programs are recommended by several researchers (Maslach, 1978; Freudenberger, 1974; Bramhall and Ezell, 1981; Kahn, 1978). Several authors offer lists of suggestions for organizations which include: sanctioned time out and job rotation (Daley, 1979); money and time (Cournoyer, 1988); staff awareness of organizational goals and careful attention to staffing patterns (Freudenberger, 1977); and, procedures for treating acute burnout, insuring that work place surroundings are pleasant and clean, and streamlining paperwork (Bramhall and Ezell, 1981). The lists are extensive.

In addition to the use of Quality Circles previously discussed, McNeely (1988) offers several innovative morale enhancing suggestions. These include: leisure sharing; part-time work; job sharing; and, flexible benefits. Leisure

sharing is a policy which "allows employees to give up a percentage of their salaries in return for more time off the job" (p. 206). These are not quick fix approaches to burnout and will require careful planning on the part of administrators.

While some writers may make claims for the negative affects of bureaucracy on the human services provider (Wasserman, 1971) and the danger of becoming a "petty bureaucrat" (Maslach, 1978, p. 58), at least one group of authors makes a case for reducing burnout by becoming a good bureaucrat. Pines et al. (1981) list three components of coping with the system as a good bureaucrat. They are: avoid overload by getting to know the organization and acquiring bureaucratic skills; learn to exercise autonomy and remember your goals; and, look for rewards from other sources besides the boss.

Walsh (1987) believes that a statement of values could be issued by the organization "regarding the rights of and the organizations attitude toward employees" (p. 283). This process recognizes employee needs and will, in Walsh's opinion, go a long way toward preventing the occurrence of burnout in the organization.

Edelwich (1980) discusses intervention techniques that will not work. Among them he lists the workshop high. Workshops are useful learning tools for learning but are not a cure for burnout. Legitimized malingering, or letting the employee get away with substandard work, will also fail.

Changing jobs, while inducing a temporary high, may mask a habit of running from trouble. Edelwich goes on to say:

> False interventions lead one to believe that burnout is like a disease that can finally be cured. This is an illusion. Burnout must be dealt with constantly in an ever changing environment. True interventions deal with the 'reality' of the total situation and attack burnout 'one-day-at-a-time' (Edelwich, 1980, p. 204).

Finally, Maslach (1978) argues that it is "absolutely essential for professionals' psychological well-being to contain their jobs within reasonable limits" (p. 58). She makes a claim for what she calls decompression routines. The routines consist of activities where workers engage in planned "special activities completely outside their jobs" that allow them to relax and forget about the pressures of work (p. 58).

METHOD

Subjects

Head Start is a program originally created in 1964 under the Economic Opportunity Act as a key element in the "War on Poverty" and is the only program which has survived intact from that era's legislation. Head Start's main focus is to provide a "head start" to pre-school children from economically and socially disadvantaged families. This is accomplished through the implementation of comprehensive child development programs which "provide for the physical, social, and intellectual growth of children" (A Guide for Providing Social Services in Head Start, 1980, p. 1). Each Head Start program is divided into several major "component" areas. One of these components is Social Services.

The Social Services component in each program has functions which must encompass the elements outlined in the Head Start Program Performance Standards (45-CFR 1304). These functions include: enrollment, selection, and recruitment of families; completion of family needs assessments; provision of emergency assistance or crisis intervention; referral and follow-up of services; advocacy; and, recordkeeping. Each Head Start program has a Social Services Coordinator who manages the component. While the basic tasks of coordinators from program to program are the

20

same, the actual duties and level of responsibility will differ depending on local needs, resources, management style, program size, population served, and experience and skill of the coordinator.

The subjects for this study were drawn from the population of Social Service Coordinators in Region IV Head Start programs. Region IV is a bureaucratic subdivision of the Department of Health and Human Services and encompasses eight states in the southeastern portion of the United States (Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee). There are approximately 230 Head Start programs in Region IV.

The subject population is a diverse group. Great differences exist in education, ethnic background, age, experience, skill, actual job responsibilities, salaries, and expectations concerning the nature of work.

Instruments

The instruments used in the study were divided into three components. The first section was designed to collect information in the following areas: age; sex; years employed; marital status; race; program size; caseload; and, education level.

The second section was designed to measure self-reported stress levels of coordinators on several items. This instrument consisted of a six point scale ranging from 0, No Stress, to 5, Very High Stress. Items consisted of possible sources of stress from: Interaction with Co-

workers; Agency Policy & Procedures; Workload; Interaction with Family & Friends; and, Personal Health & Behavior. These two sections comprised the ten items which served as the independent variables for the research.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was used as the final section of the survey. This instrument was originally designed by Maslach and Jackson (1981a) and revised by the authors for commercial publication. This instrument is perhaps the best known and most widely used instrument for measuring burnout. It consists of a set of 22 questions and a seven point scale. It is designed to measure three aspects, or subscales, of burnout: emotional exhaustion (EE); depersonalization (DP); and, personal accomplishment (PA). These scores are the dependent variables of the study.

The MBI's reliability has been estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Coefficients for the subscales have been calculated as: .90 for EE; .79 for DP; and .71 for PA. Test-retest reliability coefficients have been calculated at: .82 EE; .60 DP; and, .80 PA. All of these are significant beyond the .001 level (Maslach and Jackson, 1981b). The external validity of the instrument has been established through numerous studies and research comparing the results of the MBI with other accepted instruments such as the Job Diagnostic Survey.

Procedure

Subjects chosen for this study were picked because they

all fell within the boundaries of Region IV Head Start programs. These programs are served by the Region IV Head Start Resource Center located at Western Kentucky University. The study was conducted under the auspices of the Resource Center which expressed an interest in the work.

Subjects were chosen at random by utilizing a computerized random access program which printed a sequence of numbers that were matched with numbers previously assigned to each of the approximately 230 programs in the region. A sample size of 100 was decided upon as both reflective of the population and as a manageable study size.

The instruments and a cover letter were sent from and returned to the Region IV Resource Center. Confidentiality of information was insured since all forms were anonymous in nature. An agreement was made with the Resource Center that information would be shared with all the Social Services Coordinators in the region and that the information would be used to determine training needs if appropriate.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses are concerned with various demographic, occupational, and stress variables and their relationship to the three subscales of the MBI. The first eight hypotheses are based on section one of the survey. They are:

1. There is no significant relationship between age and burnout as measured by the MBI;

2. There is no significant relationship between the sex of the coordinator and burnout as measured by

24

the MBI;

3. There is no significant relationship between the number of years employed and burnout as measured by the MBI;

4. There is no significant relationship between marital-family status and burnout as measured by the MBI;

5. There is no significant relationship between ethnic background and burnout as measured by the MBI;

6. There is no significant relationship between the program size and burnout as measured by the MBI;

7. There is no significant relationship between the number of Family Needs Assessments personally completed by the coordinator and burnout as measured by the MBI; and,

8. There is no significant relationship between education level and burnout as measured by the MBI.

The final two hypotheses are based upon information obtained on section two of the survey. They are:

9. There is no significant relationship between self reported stress levels associated with workload and burnout as measured on the MBI; and,

10. There is no significant relationship between self reported stress levels and burnout as measured on the MBI.

RESULTS

A total of 65 surveys were returned and provided a good base for analysis. This section will discuss the results of the study through an examination of each hypothesis to determine the nature of correlation between the independent and dependent variables. Multiple regression analysis was computed using the SPSS-PC+ computerized statistical package available through the computer center at Western Kentucky University. A total of 59 surveys were used in the correlation computations.

Hypothesis 1: Age

Most responses fell between the 30 year and 49 year range. Twenty subjects, or 31%, were in the 30-39 year category and 31 subjects, or 48%, were in the 40-49 year old category. Since there were so few responses in the 20-29 and 60+ ranges these areas were collapsed into higher and lower categories respectively. This created three age groups for statistical analysis. The data in Table 1 shows the age breakdown.

No significant relationship was shown to exist between age and burnout as measured by the MBI. The null hypothesis was not shown to be false.

Hypothesis 2: Sex of the Coordinator

Social Services Coordinators in Head Start are

Table 1

<u>Distribution of Responses by Age</u>

Age Group	Responses	Per Cent
20-29	1	1.54
30-39	20	30.77
40-49	31	47.69
50-59	9	13.85
60+	4	6.15

Distribution Analyzed

Age Group	Responses	Per Cent
20-39	21	32.31
40-49	31	47.69
50+	13	20.00

overwhelmingly female. This was borne out by the results of the survey. A total of 53 respondents were female. Two respondents were male. Ten did not respond. The number of no responses probably occurred because this question, unlike the others, did not appear on the left side of the survey page and may have been overlooked. Because of the discrepancy between the number of females and males, this data could not be statistically analyzed.

Hypothesis 3: Years Employed

The majority of responses fell within three categories. Table 2 shows the complete distribution of responses. Employees who had worked 5-10 years totaled 14 responses (22%); 10-15 years totaled 14 (22%); and 15-20 years received 21 responses (32%). Due to the small number of responses in several categories, some were collapsed into other groups.

Age and years employed were, as one would expect, positively correlated. Years employed were negatively correlated with the MBI subscale Emotional Exhaustion and was significant at the .01 level. The null hypothesis was proven false for at least one subscale of the MBI.

Hypothesis 4: Marital-Family Status

The majority of respondents, 41 out of 65, were married (63%). The other three categories totaled 24 responses. Because of the small numbers these three areas were combined to form one group. This procedure created two groups for analysis: Married and Other. Analyzed in this manner no

Table 2

Distribution of Responses for Years Employed in Head Start

Years Employed	Responses	Per Cent
1 Yr or Less	2	3.08
1-3	3	4.62
3-5	4	6.15
5-10	14	21.54
10-15	14	21.54
15-20	21	32.31
20+	6	9.23
No Response	1	1.54

Distribution Analyzed

1-5	9	13.85
5-10	14	21.54
10-15	14	21.54
15+	27	41.54

significant relationship was shown to exist between Marital-Family Status and the dependent variables. The null hypothesis stands. Table 3 shows the distribution of responses.

Hypothesis 5:   Race or Ethnic Background

The number of subjects who responded as African American totaled 28 (43%). Thirty-two responses (49%) were Caucasian and three subjects responded as Native American (4%). Two subjects did not respond (Table 4). For analysis only two categories were considered: African American and Caucasian. No significant relationship was found between race and burnout as measured by the MBI. The null hypothesis was not disproved.

Hypothesis 6:   Program Size

The approximate number of families served by the Head Start program determined the responses to this survey item. Table 5 displays the complete distribution for this category. No significant relationship was found to exist between program size and burnout as measured on the MBI. The null hypothesis could not be shown to be false.

Hypothesis 7:   FNAs Completed

The number of Family Needs Assessments (FNA) personally completed by the Social Services Coordinator was determined by this survey question. Table 6 displayed the results of the survey item. No significant correlation was found to exist between FNAs completed and burnout as measured by the MBI. The null hypothesis stands.

Table 3

Distribution of Responses for Marital-Family Status

Status	Responses	Per Cent
Single (Never Married)	7	10.77
Single Parent	5	7.69
Married	41	63.08
Single	12	18.46

Distribution Analyzed		
Married	41	63.08
Other	24	36.92

Table 4

<u>Distribution of Responses by Race/Ethnic Background</u>

Race	Responses	Per Cent
African American	28	43.08
Native American	3	4.62
Asian American	0	0
Caucasian	32	49.23
Hispanic	0	0
Other	0	0
No Response	2	3.08

Table 5

<u>**Distribution of Responses by Program Size**</u>

Program Size*	Responses	Per Cent
Less than 200	29	44.62
200-500	20	30.77
500-1000	14	21.54
1000+	2	3.08

Distribution Analyzed		
Less than 200	29	44.62
200-500	20	30.77
500+	16	24.62

*(In Number of Families Served)

Table 6

Distribution of Responses to the Number of FNAs Completed by
the Social Services Coordinator

FNAs	Responses	Per Cent
Less than 50	15	23.08
50-100	12	18.46
100-150	6	9.23
150-200	3	4.62
200+	10	15.38
N/A	19	29.23

Distribution Analyzed		
Less than 50	15	23.08
50-100	12	18.46
100-200	9	13.85
200+	10	15.38
N/A	19	29.23

Hypothesis 8:   Education Level

Education levels for Social Services Coordinators fell into four categories: 32.3% had at least a High School Diploma or a GED; 15.4% had an Associate Degree; 36.9% of the respondents had a BA/BS; and 12.3% of coordinators had a MA.   No significant relationship was found to exist between education level and burnout as measured by the MBI.   The null hypothesis stands.   The data in Table 7 shows the distribution of responses.

Hypothesis 9:   Workload Stress

A total of 23 respondents (35%) reported that they were under High or Very High Stress due to their workload. Sixty-four percent (n=42) of the responses indicated between moderate and no stress due to workload.   Responses were grouped into these two categories for analysis: High/Very High or Less than High Stress.

Workload was negatively correlated with Years Employed at the .001 level.   Workload was positively correlated with two of the MBI subscales.   Workload and Emotional Exhaustion were correlated at the .001 level.   The correlation between Workload and Depersonalization was significant at the .01 level.   The null hypothesis was disproved for at least two subscales on the MBI.

Hypothesis 10:   High and Very High Stress

A total of 36 subjects (55.4%) reported that they were currently under High or Very High Stress in at least one area of their lives.   Thirteen areas were listed with

Table 7

<u>Distribution of Responses by Education Level</u>

Education	Responses	Per Cent
Less than HS	0	0
HS/GED	21	32.31
AA	10	15.38
BA/BS	24	36.92
MA/MS	8	12.31
Doctorate	0	0

workload having the highest frequency (Table 8). There were 51 total responses in the High Stress category and 15 responses were Very High. There was a significant negative relationship between reports of High/Very High Stress and Years Employed. The correlation was significant at the .01 level. There were significant positive correlations between High/Very High Stress and Emotional Exhaustion (.001 level) and Depersonalization (.01 level). The null hypothesis is rejected for these two subscales of the MBI. Correlation coefficients between all independent and dependent variables are displayed in Table 9.

Table 8

High/Very High Stress Responses on Specific Stressors

Stressors	High Stress Responses	Very High Stress Responses
Interaction with Clients	2	0
Interaction with Coworkers	7	2
Interaction with Supervisors	8	1
Agency Policy & Procedures	1	1
Workload	16	7
Interaction with Family	4	1
Interaction with Relatives	3	1
Interaction with Friends	1	0
Personal Health & Behavior	4	0
Other:		
Time Management	2	0
Low Salary	2	1
Child of Alcoholic	1	0
Supervising	0	2
Total Responses	51	15

*36 Subjects Responded in the High/Very High Stress Categories

Table 9

<u>Correlations</u>

Hypothesis	Variable	EE	DP	PA
1	Age	-.2000	-.1985	.1273
2	Sex	0	0	0
3	Yrs Empl	-.3751*	-.2107	.0488
4	Marital Stat	.0784	.1397	.0440
5	Race	.2583	.1287	-.1969
6	Prog Size	-.0125	-.1398	.0609
7	FNA	.1081	.0256	.0697
8	Education	.0598	-.1711	.0339
9	Workload	.5711**	.3518*	-.0423
10	H/VH Stress	.5508**	.3273*	-.1525

Other Significant Correlations

Age and Years Employed	.3832*
Workload and Years Employed	-.5072**
H/VH Stress and Years Employed	-.3328*
EE and DP	.5075**

* Significant at the .01 Level
** Significant at the .001 Level

DISCUSSION

Contrary to the original suspicions of the researcher, only one of the first eight hypotheses could be shown to be significantly related to burnout. Age, sex, race, marital status, program size, FNAs processed, and educational level were not significantly correlated to any of the three subscales of the MBI.

From the first section of the survey only Years Employed was significantly correlated to the MBI. It was shown to be negatively related and significant at the .01 level to the Emotional Exhaustion subscale. This result is probably not too surprising, since the longer an employee has worked the more we might expect that employee to have developed the skills necessary to survive emotionally on the job. The work of Cherniss (1980) on the stresses unique to new employees may be important in regard to this survey result. He emphasizes the need for proper orientation and a need for "easing" new employees into their jobs in order to maintain positive work attitudes (Cherniss, 1980).

Also important in this area is the work of Edelwich (1980) who states that certain "built-in" sources of frustration will lead the human services worker toward burnout. This may be especially true for the new worker who comes to the Head Start program with, in Edelwichs' terms,

39

"noble aspirations and high initial enthusiasm" (Edelwich,
1980). These tendencies of the new employee and the
realities of the job coupled with a lack of supervision and
criteria for measuring success often take their toll on the
new employee leading to frustration and apathy. It is
interesting to note that while years employed was related to
burnout, the age of the worker was not significantly related
to any of the MBI subscales. It seems to be time and
maturity on the job that are important.

Years Employed and stress due to workload were
significantly negatively correlated at the .001 level. Once
again it would appear that time on the job is a significant
factor in how coordinators handle stress and the burnout
that can occur as the result of prolonged exposure to
stressful situations. Several authors note the importance
of workload and its relation to burnout (Cherniss, 1980;
Maslach, 1982; Pines et al, 1981).

The greater the number of years employed the less the
coordinators seemed to feel they were under High or Very
High Stress in several areas. This significant negative
correlation (.01 level) may reflect the fact that several of
the indices concerned the ability of the coordinator to deal
effectively with coworkers, supervisors, and agency policy
and procedures. It appears reasonable to assume that after
several years, the coordinator would have learned to cope
more effectively with these possible sources of stress.

Workers who believed that they were under High or Very

High Stress from their workloads were more likely to show signs of emotional exhaustion. Workload and Emotional Exhaustion were positively correlated at the .001 level. Since program size and FNAs processed were not related significantly to burnout, it is interesting to speculate on what the workload of those coordinators who feel under severe stress might be like. It is very likely that some are new coordinators. It is also likely that "workload" is a very subjective experience. All that can be said based upon this research is that perception of High or Very High Stress due to workload is related to burnout. The same relationships hold for the significant positive relationships between all High/Very High Stress items and the Emotional Exhaustion subscale of the MBI.

Perceptions of High and Very High Stress on workload and other stress indices were also positively related to the subscale of Depersonalization (.001 and .01 levels). This makes sense in light of Maslach work (1982) that details a progressive movement from emotional exhaustion to depersonalization to loss of personal accomplishment. The Emotional Exhaustion subscale was also positively related to the Depersonalization subscale at the .001 level. This would tend to confirm Maslachs' findings to some extent.

It must be noted, however, that only 3.08% of all Social Services Coordinators surveyed scored High on the Depersonalization scale (Table 10). This indicates that even though there is the tendency to be more depersonalizing

Table 10

<u>MBI Subscale Scores for the Survey Population</u>

	EE	DP	PA
LOW	56.92%	80.00%	40.00%
MODERATE	30.77%	16.92%	35.38%
HIGH	12.31%	3.08%	24.62%

as the coordinator is under stress, the level of
depersonalization in Head Start is very low. This may be
explained by the close identification that many coordinators
feel toward their clients. This lack of "detached concern"
is a possible explanation for the discrepancies in the
scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization
subscales. A lack of "detached concern" is also one of the
leading causes of burnout according to some authors
(Maslach, 1982; Pines et al, 1981).

Of the coordinators in the study, 30.77% showed a
moderate degree of burnout due to Emotional Exhaustion while
12.31% were high on burnout for that subscale. While
Depersonalization was low, still 16.92% of the subjects
showed a moderate degree of depersonalization in their
scores.

While the subscale Personal Accomplishment was not
shown to be significantly related to any of the other
factors in the study, this does not mean that feeling a lack
of Personal Accomplishment in work is not an important
factor to consider. Over 35% of subjects reported that
personal accomplishment was a moderate factor for them in
leading toward burnout and 24.62% of all responses fell into
the high category on this subscale. Of the three subscales,
this high score stands out. It is nearly double the high
Emotional Exhaustion score and eight times the
Depersonalization score (Table 11). While this research did
not find significant relationships between lack of personal

Table 11

<u>MBI Subscale Means/Ranges</u>

	Mean	Range
Emotional Exhaustion	15.91	0-42
Depersonalization	4.12	0-19
Personal Accomplishment	36.09	14-48*

*Scored in the opposite direction from EE and DP

accomplishment and other variables, a different research design might reveal important and significant correlations.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was designed to investigate the phenomenon of burnout among Head Start Social Services Coordinators. Its purpose was to determine whether burnout exists, its severity, possible correlates and finally to make recommendations for action and possible intervention strategies for individuals and organizations. When asked "Would training in the area of Stress/Burnout be beneficial to you?" over 70% of the subjects responded in the affirmative. Results of the survey seem to indicate that some coordinators may indeed need assistance in this area.

Slightly over 12% of the subjects surveyed scored High on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale of the MBI. Over 24% scored High on the Personal Accomplishment subscale. These figures seem to indicate that several coordinators may be either having problems with burnout now or could have some problems in the future. It may be important for local programs to deal with this issue.

The negative correlation between Years Employed and Emotional Exhaustion may indicate that employees who have been on the job for several years have learned to deal more effectively with the stresses of the job. If it is true that new employees need more assistance, this has implications for training and employee orientation.

Cherniss (1980) notes that the major sources of stress which lead to early burnout among new social service workers consist of: feeling a lack of competence; lack of motivation by clients; bureaucratic interference; boredom; and, perceived lack of support from colleagues. Head Start programs can do something positive about several of these problem areas.

A feeling of lack of competence is not an unusual response to a new job situation, but could be eased by certain measures. One response would be to develop or utilize New Coordinator Training programs which would familiarize new workers with their duties and responsibilities. A system for networking with experienced Social Services Coordinators, having a shoulder to lean on, could be very useful. Also, utilizing the "buddy system" within an organization could be beneficial. This system would team a new employee with an experienced peer who would be assigned to show them the ropes. Supervisors must take the time to allow the employee to find their niche and to set reasonable goals. Supervisors must also outline specific expectations so that the new employee is clear on "where the boss is coming from." New employees also need to understand that just because they have a title or "credential" they are not expected to be automatically competent and all knowing.

While programs may be able to do little about client motivation, new coordinators can be assisted by reassessing

work goals, lowering their feeling of personal
responsibility for certain outcomes and readjusting their
level of idealism (Cherniss, 1980).

Bureaucratic interference can be lessened, if it is a
problem, or the new employee can be taught how best to use
the system for her benefit and the benefit of her clients.
Allowing the new employee as much freedom as possible will
help develop creativity, self-assurance and will eliminate
some of the alienating effects of bureaucratic structure.

If boredom is a problem, it may be due to the over or
under whelming nature of the job as experienced by the new
coordinator. Too much, as well as too little, stress can be
detrimental.

The high positive correlation between perceived stress
due to workload and scores on the Emotional Exhaustion scale
may be important. Those coordinators who rated themselves
as under High or Very High Stress due to workload also
tended to score higher on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale.
What a high workload is will probably be a very subjective
experience for the coordinators. Important in this regard
is the expectations of the agency toward services provided
by its social services component. If expectations are high
then a caseload of 50 might create stress; if expectations
are low for time spent in interaction with families, then a
much higher caseload might lead to little or no stress on
the coordinator's part. Supervisors and coordinators might
find it helpful to analyze their social services program and

adjust goals as necessary.

Coordinators who perceived themselves as being under high or very high stress in several areas such as interaction with coworkers and supervisors, interaction with family and friends, and personal health and behavior, also tended to score higher on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale. While supervisors certainly cannot be expected to control for all these possibilities, it would be useful to maintain lines of communications with employees that would keep the supervisor informed as to the level of stress and its directionality.

Edelwich (1980) notes that some interventions will not work in moving from a state of burnout. One of these unsuccessful strategies is the "workshop high." Sending a worker to a workshop on burnout may be useful as a tool for learning, but needs to be followed up by action at home. The "high" will wear off often leaving the worker worse off than before. Another intervention that will not work is to legitimize malingering. A burned out worker must be confronted with her behavior and helped if necessary to overcome the problem. Allowing the worker to get away with shoddy work does not help the worker, the client, or the agency. Burnout is also contagious and can negatively effect the work and morale of peers.

Both the individual worker and the agency are responsible for coming to terms with the phenomenon of burnout, and the problems can only be solved if both work

toward a solution. While there is much talk of empowering families, there is little discussion directed toward the empowerment of staff. From the individual's perspective, empowerment can come through the setting of realistic goals, a focus on success, rest and relaxation, a "life" outside of work, developing tools for coping, and improving the range and quality of old tools (Edelwich, 1980; Maslach, 1982; Pines et al., 1981). The individual can also engage in self help programs such as the one proposed by Bramhall and Ezell (1981b).

The organization can assist the coordinator by not making excessive demands while maintaining reasonable expectations, having clear agency goals and objectives, supporting peer support groups and networks, providing timely and specific performance feedback, providing training and orientation programs, and promoting health and wellness programs for the staff (Lawson et al., 1984; Farber, 1983). While the individual can do much on her own to improve coping skills,

> individual coping skills seem effective in
> marriage, parenting, and household economics, but
> not at work. In work settings individual coping
> strategies seem less useful than those at the
> group and agency level (Golembiewski et al.,
> 1986).

One final point is worth noting from the results of this study. The amount of Depersonalization was extremely

low.   It was only 3.08% on the high scale while 80% of the subjects responded low for this MBI subscale.   This is much lower than would normally be expected.   A possible answer to this is in the nature of the Head Start program itself. Nationwide 36% of Head Start employees are ex-Head Start parents (Mallory and Goldsmith, 1990).   This utilization of ex-parents has been a central part of Head Start's philosophy and one of its major strengths for 25 years. Although it cannot be known if any of the subjects in this study were ex-parents, it is more likely than not that several were.   The loyalty of these workers is high and their sense of belonging to the Head Start "family" allows them little room to depersonalize the client who may have come from the very community they themselves have come from or may still live in or near.   If this conjecture is possible, it makes a good argument for Head Start's utilization of properly trained ex-parents as employees.

Head Start programs could benefit from a careful analysis of stress and burnout in their agencies.   The effects of burnout are detrimental to the workers, clients, coworkers, and the agency.   The costs are high in emotions, physical illness, time lost from work, poor performance, substance abuse, turnover, and loss of creative energy.   In a time of increasing poverty and social ills, Social Services Coordinators and agencies cannot afford to fall and fail due to burnout.   Workers and programs must work together as an interdependent team.

REFERENCES

Antonovsky, A. (1987). Health promoting factors at work: the
  sense of coherence. In R. Kalimo, M. El-Batani, & C.
  Cooper (Eds.), psychosocial factors at work and their
  relation to health (pp. 153-167). Geneva: World Health
  Organization.

Arches, J. (1989). Structural components contributing to
  burnout and job satisfaction in social workers,
  Dissertation Abstracts International, 49, 3155A.
  (University Microfilms No. DA 8901987)

Beck, D. (1987). Counselor burnout in family service
  agencies. Social Casework, 68, 3-15.

Bramhall, M., & Ezell, S. (1981a). How agencies can prevent
  burnout. Public Welfare, 39, 33-37.

Bramhall, M., & Ezell, S. (1981b). Working your way out of
  burnout. Public Welfare, 39, 32-38.

Cherniss, C. (1980). Professional burnout in human service
  organizations. New York: Preager.

Cherniss, C., & Krantz, D. (1983). The ideological community
  as an antidote to burnout in the human services. In B. A.
  Farber (Ed.), Stress and burnout in the human service
  professions (pp. 198-212). New York: Pergamon Press.

Cooper, C., & Davidson, M. (1987). Sources of stress at work
  and their relation to non-working environments. In R.
  Kalimo, M. El-Batani, & C. Cooper (Eds.), Psychosocial
  factors at work and their relation to health (pp. 99-111).
  Geneva: World Health Organization.

Cournoyer, B. (1988). Personal and professional distress among social caseworkers. Social Casework, 69, 259-264.

Daley, M. (1979). Burnout: smoldering problem in protective services. Social Work, 24, 375-379.

Davis-Sack, M., Jayaratne, S., & Chess, W. (1985). A comparison of the effects of social support on the incidence of burnout. Social Work, 30, 240-244.

Donovan, R. (1987). Stress in the workplace: a framework for research and practice. Social Casework, 68, 259-266.

Edelwich, J. (1980). Burn-out: stages of disillusionment in the helping professions. New York: Human Sciences Press.

Fabricant, M. (1985). The industrialization of social work. Social Work, 30, 389-395.

Farber, B. (1983). Introduction: a critical perspective on burnout. In B. Farber (Ed.), Stress and burnout in the human services professions (pp. 1-20). New York: Pergamon Press.

Freudenberger, H. (1974). Staff burn-out. Journal of Social Issues, 30, 159-165.

Freudenberger, H. (1977a). Burn-out: occupational hazard of the child care worker. Child Care Quarterly, 6, 90-99.

Freudenberger, H. (1977b). Burn-out: the organizational menace. Training and Development Journal, 31, 26-27.

Handy, J. (1988). Theoretical and methodological problems within occupational stress and burnout research. Human Relations, 41, 351-369.

Harrison, W. (1980). Role strain and burnout in child-
protective service workers. Social Service Review, 54, 31-
44.

House, J. (1981). Work stress and social support. Reading:
Addison-Wesley.

Jayaratne, S., Himle, D., & Chess, W. (1988). Dealing with
work stress and strain: is the perception of support more
important than its use?. Journal of Applied Behavioral
Science, 24, 191-202.

Kahn, R. (1978). Job burnout: prevention and remedies.
Public Welfare, 36, 61-63.

Karger, H. (1981). Burnout as alienation. Social Service
Review, 55, 270-283.

Kestnbaum, J. (1984). Expectations for therapeutic growth:
one factor in burnout. Social Casework, 65, 374-377.

Koeske, G., & Koeske, R. (1989). Work load and burnout: can
social support and perceived accomplishment help?. Social
Work, 34, 243-248.

Lawson, G., Ellis, D., & Rivens, D. (1984). Essentials of
chemical dependency counseling. Rockville, MD: Aspen
Systems Corporation.

Levi, L. (1981). Preventing work stress. Reading, MA:
Addison-Wesley.

Mallory, N. & Goldsmith, N. (1990). Head start works! two
head start veterans share their views, Young Children, 45,
36-39.

Maslach, C. (1978). How people cope. <u>Public Welfare</u>, <u>36</u>,
56-58.

Maslach, C. (1982). <u>Burnout: the cost of caring</u>. Englewood
Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Maslach, C. & Jackson, S. (1981a). The measurement of
experienced burnout. <u>Journal of Occupational Behavior</u>,
<u>2</u>, 99-113.

Maslach, C. & Jackson, S. (1981b). <u>Maslach burnout inventory
manual</u> (2nd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists
Press.

McNeely, R. (1988). Five morale-enhancing innovations for
human service settings. <u>Social Casework</u>, <u>69</u>, 204-213.

Perlman, B. & Hartman, E. (1982). Burnout: summary and future
research. <u>Human Relations</u>, <u>35</u>, 283-305.

Pines, A., Aronson, E., & Kafry, D. (1981). <u>Burnout: from
tedium to personal growth</u>. New York: Free Press.

Pines, A. (1983). On burnout and the buffering effects of
social support. In B. Farber (Ed.), <u>Stress and burnout
in the human service professions</u> (pp. 155-174). New York:
Pergamon Press.

Office of Human Development Services. (1980). <u>A guide for
providing social services in head start</u> (DHHS Publication
No. (OHDS) 85-31188). Washington, DC: U. S. Government
Printing Office.

Office of Human Development Services. (1984). Head start program performance standards (45-CFR 1304) (DHHS Publication No. (OHDS) 84-31131). Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Ratliff, N. (1988). Stress and burnout in the helping professions. Social Casework, 69, 147-154.

Scully, R. (1983). The work-setting support group: a means of preventing burnout. In B. Farber (Ed.), Stress and burnout in the human services professions (pp. 188-197). New York: Pergamon Press.

Sherman, W. & Wenocur, S. (1983). Empowering public welfare workers through mutual support. Social Work, 28, 375-379.

Shinn, M. & Morch, H. (1983). A tripartite model of coping with burnout. In B. Farber (Ed.), Stress and burnout in the human services professions (pp. 227-240). New York: Pergamon Press.

Streepy, J. (1981). Direct-service providers and burnout. Social Casework, 62, 352-361.

Sundet, P. (1987). The relationship of selected organizational and work related stress factors to indices of job satisfaction among rural public child welfare workers. Dissertation Abstracts International, 48, 483A. (University Microfilms No. DA 8711888)

Ursprung, A. (1986). Burnout in the human services: a review of the literature. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 29, 190-199.

Walsh, J.   (1987).   Burnout and values in the social service
   profession.   Social Casework, 68, 279-283.

Wasserman, H. (1971).   The professional social worker in a
   bureaucracy.   Social Work, 16, 89-95.

SURVEY

Place a CHECK MARK in the appropriate space. Each item has only one response.

1. AGE: _____ 20 - 29 Years   2. SEX: _____ Female
        _____ 30 - 39 Years   _____ Male
        _____ 40 - 49 Years
        _____ 50 - 59 Years
        _____ 60 Years or Older

3. NUMBER OF YEARS AS A HEAD START EMPLOYEE:
        _____ 1 Year or Less   _____ 5 - 10 Years   _____ 20 Years or More
        _____ 1 - 3 Years   _____ 10 - 15 Years
        _____ 3 - 5 Years   _____ 15 - 20 Years

4. YOUR CURRENT MARITAL-FAMILY STATUS:
        _____ Single (Never Married)   _____ Single (Divorced or Separated)
        _____ Single Parent   _____ Other
        _____ Married

5. RACE OR ETHNIC BACKGROUND:
        _____ African American   _____ Caucasian
        _____ Native American   _____ Hispanic
        _____ Asian   _____ Other Ethnic Origin

6. WHAT IS THE APPROXIMATE SIZE OF YOUR HEAD START PROGRAM IN NUMBER OF FAMILIES SERVED:
        _____ Less than 200   _____ 500 - 1000
        _____ 200 - 500   _____ 1000 or more families

   *If you personally complete and process FNA instruments complete Question # 7.

7. HOW MANY FNA INSTRUMENTS DO YOU PERSONALLY COMPLETE DURING ONE PROJECT YEAR:
        _____ Less than 50   _____ 150 - 200
        _____ 50 - 100   _____ 200 or More FNAs
        _____ 100 - 150

8. EDUCATION LEVEL
        _____ Less than High School   _____ BA/BS
        _____ High School or GED   _____ Masters Degree
        _____ Associate Degree   _____ Doctorate

Stress may come from several sources. Where are your sources of stress?
Rate each item below using the scale provided. Place the appropriate
number by each of the possible stressors.

5	4	3	2	1	0
Very High Stress	High Stress	Moderate Stress	Mild Stress	Very Low Stress	None

Stress Level   Possible Source of Stress

_____   Interaction with Clients

_____   Interaction with Co-workers

_____   Interaction with Supervisor(s)

_____   Agency Policy & Procedures

_____   Workload

_____   Interaction with Immediate Family

_____   Interaction with Relatives

_____   Interaction with Friends

_____   Personal Health or Behavior

_____   Other _____

Would training in the area of stress/burnout be beneficial to you?
_____ YES   _____ NO

If YES, please explain the type of training you believe would assist you the most in coping
with stress/burnout:_____
_____
_____
_____

HUMAN SERVICES SURVEY

HOW OFTEN:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

HOW OFTEN
0-6   Statements:

1. _____   I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. _____   I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. _____   I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. _____   I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things.
5. _____   I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects.
6. _____   Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
7. _____   I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients.
8. _____   I feel burned out from my work.
9. _____   I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.
10. _____   I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.
11. _____   I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
12. _____   I feel very energetic.
13. _____   I feel frustrated by my job.
14. _____   I feel I'm working too hard on my job.
15. _____   I don't really care what happens to some recipients.
16. _____   Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.
17. _____   I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients.
18. _____   I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients.
19. _____   I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
20. _____   I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
21. _____   In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.
22. _____   I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems.

EE: _____ _____   DP: _____ _____   PA: _____ _____

Appendix B

MBI Categorization Ranges

	EE	DP	PA*
LOW	0-16	0-6	39+
MODERATE	17-26	7-12	32-38
HIGH	27+	13+	0-31

*Scored in the opposite direction from EE and DP